

# High Prevalence of GB Virus C/Hepatitis G Virus RNA in Patients Infected With Human Immunodeficiency Virus

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Prevalence of GBV-C/HGV was determined in a cohort of HIV-infected patients, via a reverse transcription–polymerase chain reaction detection of RNA in serum, amplifying the NS5 region of GBV-C/HGV genome. GBV-C/HGV RNA was detected in 143 (37.7%) of 379 patients, with similar results in the different HIV risk groups: 25/56 (44.6%) in intravenous drug users, 66/161 (41%) in homo- and bisexual men, 35/108 (32.4%) in heterosexual patients, 6/20 (30%) in transfusion recipients ( $P = 0.41$ ). There was no difference according to the presence or absence of hepatitis C virus infection. In univariate analysis, GBV-C/HGV genome prevalence was lower in patients over 50 years old (18.2%), compared to other age groups (20–29 years: 34.2%; 30–39 years: 44.3%; 40–49 years: 36.7%,  $P = 0.03$ ), as well as in patients with normal CD4 cell count (29.2% vs. 45.4% between 200–500/mm<sup>3</sup>, and 35.3% below 200 CD4/mm<sup>3</sup>,  $P = 0.012$ ) and individuals with a chronic hepatitis B. However, in the multivariate analysis, the only prognostic factor of GBV-C/HGV RNA positivity was the presence of a chronic hepatitis B, compared to the absence of any HBV marker, or a previous exposition to HBV (presence of anti-HBc and/or anti-HBs, absence of HBsAg), or the presence of anti-HBs alone. *J. Med. Virol.* 57:75–79, 1999.

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et al., 1996; Muerhoff et al., 1997a]; they belong to the *Flaviviridae* family [Leary et al., 1996] and their genome consists in a positive-strand RNA of about 10 kb that encodes the structural proteins at the 5' end and the nonstructural proteins at the 3' end of the genome [Simons et al., 1995; Leary et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996]. The nucleotide sequences are homologous (86%), indicating that they are closely related variants of the same virus [Berg et al., 1996; Zuckerman, 1996; Yashina et al., 1997]. Phylogenetic analysis showed that the GBV-C genome was constrained; as a result, there is a high degree of nucleotide and amino acid sequence conservation between isolates from different geographical areas [Muerhoff et al., 1997b]. The clinical effect of GBV-C/HGV, which is still debated, seems to be very low [Alter MJ et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997a; Martinot et al., 1997; Sampietro et al., 1997; Skidmore et al., 1997; Thomas et al., 1997; Vargas et al., 1997; Yashina et al., 1997]. Replication in hepatocytes is controversial [Laskus et al., 1997; Saito et al., 1997], since it is also found in peripheral blood mononuclear cells [Saito et al., 1997; Radkowski et al., 1998].

However, many epidemiological studies have been undertaken, usually by serum RNA detection, showing a high prevalence of this virus in humans: 0.8–13% in blood donors [Dawson et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Stark et al., 1996; Feucht et al., 1997a; Wang and Jin, 1997], much more higher rates in patients with parenteral exposures (intravenous drug users [Dawson et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Schreier et al., 1996; Stark et al., 1996; Feucht et al., 1997b; Fong et al., 1997; Thomas et al., 1997], transfusion recipients [Linnen et al., 1996; Alter HJ et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997b; Sampietro et al., 1997; Skidmore et al., 1997], hemophiliacs

## INTRODUCTION

GB virus C (GBV-C)/hepatitis G virus (HGV), potential agents of viral hepatitis, were recently identified by molecular biology methods [Simons et al., 1995; Linnen

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[Jarvis et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Nübling and Löwer, 1996; Alter HJ et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997b; Kinoshita et al., 1997], and patients on chronic hemodialysis [Masuko et al., 1996; Tsuda et al., 1996; Feucht et al., 1997b; Lampe et al., 1997; Ross et al., 1998]). Sexual transmission also occurred [Stark et al., 1996; Rubio et al., 1997], as well as vertical transmission [Feucht et al., 1996; Fischler et al., 1997; Hino et al., 1998]. GBV-C/HGV may also be frequently found in patients with acute non-A-E hepatitis [Alter MJ et al., 1997; Kao et al., 1997; Wang and Jin, 1997], chronic hepatitis B [Linnen et al., 1996; Alter MJ et al., 1997; Kao et al., 1997; Wang and Jin, 1997] or C [Berg et al., 1996; Bhardwaj et al., 1996; Dawson et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Tanaka et al., 1996; Alter HJ et al., 1997; Alter MJ et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997b; Kao et al., 1997; Wang and Jin, 1997; Yashina et al., 1997; Manolakopoulos et al., 1998], or with hepatocellular carcinoma [Linnen et al., 1996; Kao et al., 1997; Wang and Jin, 1997]; nevertheless, it does not seem to affect the progression of the associated hepatitis.

On the other hand, few studies were conducted in immunocompromised individuals, especially in HIV-infected patients. Moreover the role of the immune impairment on GBV-C/HGV RNA detection is unknown. The aim of the present study was to determine the prevalence of GBV-C/HGV, by genome detection, in a cohort of HIV-infected patients, and to examine the factors that could influence this prevalence.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Patients

A total of 397 consecutive HIV-infected patients were included in the study, from 1 December 1996 to 31 May 1997. They were all followed in an outpatient clinic (Centre d'Informations et de Soins de l'Immunodéficience Humaine, Hôpitaux Universitaires, Strasbourg, France). HIV-1 infection was confirmed by a Western blot assay (New LAV blot I, Sanofi Diagnostics Pasteur, Marnes la Coquette, France). The following demographic data were recorded: age, sex, HIV risk group, and Centers for Disease Control (CDC) 1993 classification. In addition, CD4 lymphocyte cell count was measured by flow cytometry; the last result before hepatitis G virus (HGV) testing was noted. The mean age of the cohort was 36.8 years.

### Hepatitis Serology

Sera were tested for hepatitis C virus (HCV) antibodies by third-generation commercially available ELISAs, and also for hepatitis B virus (HBV) markers (HBsAg, anti-HBs, anti-HBc, HBeAg, and anti-HBe). Patients were considered to have chronic hepatitis B if they had an HBsAg (with or without the HBeAg); they were considered to have been exposed to HBV if they had antibodies to hepatitis B core antigen (anti-HBc), anti-HBs, but were HBsAg-negative; patients with anti-HBs alone were also separated as a group (probable hepatitis B immunization).

### GBV-C/HGV RNA Detection

Serum was obtained by centrifugation of the blood sample at 2,500 rounds/min for 10 min, within 6 hr of venous puncture, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . RNA was extracted from 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of thawed serum with 400  $\mu\text{l}$  of lysis buffer (HCV Amplicor Roche, Roche Diagnostic, Meylan, France) at  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min. Five hundred  $\mu\text{l}$  of isopropanol were added, followed by a centrifugation at 14,000 rounds/min for 15 min, and a washing with 1 ml of ethanol 70%. The resulting pellet was suspended in 25  $\mu\text{l}$  of DEPC water. RNA was reverse-transcribed and amplified by use of primers from the NS5 region of GBV-C/HGV. Seven  $\mu\text{l}$  of RNA were first reverse-transcribed with 40 pmoles of antisense primer 211R (5'-CGAATGAGTCAGAGGACGGGGTAT-3') in 9  $\mu\text{l}$  of RT master mix (4  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $\text{MgCl}_2$  25 mM, 2  $\mu\text{l}$  of dNTP 200 M, 2  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $10 \times$  Perkin Elmer buffer, 1  $\mu\text{l}$  of Perkin Elmer Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase) at  $42^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 min. Fifteen  $\mu\text{l}$  of the resulting cDNA were amplified with 85  $\mu\text{l}$  of PCR master mix (10  $\mu\text{l}$  of Perkin Elmer buffer, 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of  $\text{MgCl}_2$  25 mM, 5  $\mu\text{l}$  of sense primer 77F [5'-CTCTTTGTGGTAGCCGAGAGAT-3'], 2  $\mu\text{l}$  of dNTP 200 M, 2  $\mu\text{l}$  of Perkin Elmer Taq DNA polymerase).

Amplification was run as follows: initial denaturing of  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 5 min, followed by 35 cycles of  $94^{\circ}\text{C}$  (1 min),  $60^{\circ}\text{C}$  (1 min), and  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  (1 min), and a final extension of  $72^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 10 min (HYBAID Omnigen thermocycler, Omnigen, UK). Twenty-five  $\mu\text{l}$  of the PCR product were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 2.5% agarose gel, with ethidium bromide staining, and visualized under ultraviolet illumination (showing a 155 base pair). The specificity of the PCR product was confirmed by hybridization in liquid medium (152F probe, DEIA Sorin Biomedica kit, Paris, France). Each sample was tested in duplicate; a PCR was considered positive or negative should both reactions of the same sample give the same result, and indeterminate should one reaction be positive and the other negative.

### Statistical Analysis

The chi-square test was used to assess the association between GBV-C/HGV and the demographic variables, the CD4 lymphocyte count, and HBV and HCV status. A logistic regression analysis was also done to evaluate the prognostic value of the different variables and to adjust for potential confounding factors.

## RESULTS

Of 397 patients, 143 positive and 236 negative results were obtained, as well as 18 indeterminate reactions, which were excluded from statistical analysis. Thus, the overall GBV-C/HGV prevalence was 37.7% (143/379), similar in male and female patients (37.9% vs. 37.1%,  $P = 0.88$ ).

GBV-C/HGV genome detection was slightly more frequent in patients with an AIDS diagnosis: 48/136 (35.3%) in group A, 76/196 (38.8%) in group B, and 19/47 (40.4%) in group C, but the difference was not

TABLE I. GBV-C/HGV Prevalence According to HIV Risk Group

HIV risk group	GBV-C/HGV–positive number (%)	GBV-C/HGV–negative number (%)
Intravenous drug users	25 (44.6)	31 (55.4)
Homosexual men	66 (41)	95 (59)
Heterosexual patients	35 (32.4)	73 (67.6)
Transfusion recipients	6 (30)	14 (70)
Indeterminate	11 (33.3)	22 (66.6)

significant ( $P = 0.75$ ) according to this clinical classification. However, GBV-C/HGV RNA prevalence was lower in patients with a normal CD4 cell count result ( $>500/\text{mm}^3$ ), 40/137 (29.2%), compared to patients with a moderate immune deficit (CD4 between 200 and  $500/\text{mm}^3$ ), 79/174 (45.4%), and individuals with a severe immune deficit ( $\text{CD}_4 < 200/\text{mm}^3$ ), 24/68 (35.3%). This difference is significant ( $P = 0.012$ ). Thus GBV-C/HGV genome prevalence was not influenced by the clinical status, but by the immune (CD4 cell count) status.

Table I shows the results according to the HIV risk group; it varies from 30% to 44.6%, but the differences were not significant ( $P = 0.41$ ). Thus, GBV-C/HGV prevalence was high, but not different, between sexual (homo- and heterosexual) and parenteral exposures. GBV-C/HGV genome prevalence was lower in older patients (over 50 years) compared to the other age groups (Table II). This difference reached a statistical significance ( $P = 0.03$ ). Coinfection with HCV did not influence GBV-C/HGV prevalence: 34/78 (43.6%) in patients coinfecting with HIV and HCV, vs. 107/298 (35.9%) in patients infected with HIV without HCV infection ( $P = 0.21$ ). On the other hand, it was increased by HBV (Table III). Indeed, GBV-C/HGV prevalence was higher in patients with a chronic hepatitis B, and the lowest rate was observed in patients with anti-HBs alone ( $P = 0.016$ ).

In the multivariate analysis, the presence of a chronic hepatitis B infection was the only significant factor increasing GBV-C/HGV prevalence (OR = 2.56; 95% CI, 1.19–5.47).

## DISCUSSION

In this epidemiological study, a high prevalence (37.7%) of GBV-C/HGV RNA was found in an HIV-infected cohort of 397 patients, using an RT-PCR detection of RNA amplifying the NS5 region. Several studies of GBV-C/HGV prevalence in HIV-infected patients have been published; a high frequency of GBV-C/HGV genome detection was also found: 10/55 (18.2%) in individuals with HIV-infection, but HIV risk groups weren't specified [Feucht et al., 1997b], 9/100 (9%) in intravenous drug users and homosexual men [Nübling and Löwer, 1996], 8/33 (24%) in HIV-infected hemophiliacs [Kinoshita et al., 1997], 3/17 (17.6%) in HIV-infected pregnant women [Feucht et al., 1996], 2/20 (10%) in another series of HIV-seropositive hemophiliacs [Jarvis et al., 1996], and 11/41 (26.8%) in Japanese

TABLE II. GBV-C/HGV Prevalence in Different Age Groups

Age, years	GBV-C/HGV–positive number (%)	GBV-C/HGV–negative number (%)
20–29	27 (34.2)	52 (65.8)
30–39	77 (44.3)	97 (55.7)
40–49	33 (36.7)	57 (63.3)
>50	6 (18.2)	33 (81.8)

TABLE III. GBV-C/HGV Prevalence According to HBV Status

HBV status	GBV-C/HGV–positive number (%)	GBV-C/HGV–negative number (%)
Chronic hepatitis B infection	19 (57.6)	14 (42.4)
No HBV marker	49 (40.2)	73 (59.8)
Previous exposition to HBV <sup>a</sup>	63 (35.8)	113 (64.2)
Anti-HBs alone	10 (22.7)	34 (77.3)

<sup>a</sup>Patients with anti-HBc, anti-HBs, without HBsAg.

hemophilia patients with HIV coinfection [Toyoda et al., 1998].

In our study, the results of HIV-infected patients were not compared to a non-HIV-infected cohort. However, it seemed that HIV by itself did not increase GBV-C/HGV prevalence. For instance, Stark et al. [1996] did not find any association of GBV-C/HGV prevalence with HIV antibodies in intravenous drug users and homosexual men; 24% of hemophiliacs with HIV antibodies, vs. 23% without HIV antibodies, were GBV-C/HGV–positive for Kinoshita et al. [1997]; Jarvis et al. [1996] found GBV-C/HGV RNA in 10% of HIV-infected hemophiliacs vs. 11/75 (14.7%) of HIV-negative hemophiliacs; GBV-C/HGV RNA status was not associated with HIV in 246 intravenous drug users (OR, 0.9; 95% CI; 0.4–2.0) [Thomas et al., 1997]; GBV-C/HGV RNA was detected in 11% and 8%, respectively, of HIV-positive and HIV-negative patients (81 hemophiliacs) [Goedert et al., 1997].

GBV-C/HGV prevalence is linked, as shown in several studies, to sexual and parenteral exposures: detection of GBV-C/HGV RNA in 11% and 13.4% of homo- and bisexual men [Stark et al., 1996; Rubio et al., 1997], 13.9% of female prostitutes [Rubio et al., 1997], 5/23 (21.7%) of heterosexual partners of GBV-C/HGV–infected individuals [Rubio et al., 1997]; GBV-C/HGV RNA prevalence of 3.1% to 55% in dialysis patients [Masuko et al., 1996; Tsuda et al., 1996; Feucht et al., 1997b; Lampe et al., 1997; Ross et al., 1998], 14% to 35.2% in hemophiliacs [Linnen et al., 1996; Jarvis et al., 1996; Feucht et al., 1997b; Kinoshita et al., 1997], 10% to 48% in transfusion recipients [Linnen et al., 1996; Alter HJ et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997b; Sampietro et al., 1997; Skidmore et al., 1997], including thalassemia major patients [Sampietro et al., 1997] and bone marrow transplant recipients and patients with acute leukemia [Skidmore et al., 1997], 9.7% to 49% in intravenous drug users [Dawson et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Schreier et al., 1996; Stark et al., 1996;



Feucht et al., 1997b; Fong et al., 1997; Thomas et al., 1997].

Interestingly, a lower prevalence of GBV-C/HGV RNA was found in older patients (>50 years) by the chi-square test; however, this difference disappeared in the multivariate analysis, suggesting the role of other factors in the results of the univariate analysis. Nevertheless, the study of Thomas et al. [1997] showed a higher rate of GBV-C/HGV RNA detection in younger intravenous drug users (from around 50% in users 20–24 years old, to 5% in users over 39 years old,  $P < 0.001$  for trend), as well as among intravenous drug users with shorter durations of drug use. This implies that GBV-C/HGV is a less persistent virus than HCV. Tanaka et al. [1996] also found that patients with GBV-C/HGV infection were significantly younger than those without GBV-C/HGV infection (46.6 years vs. 51.7 years,  $P = 0.043$ ). For Manolakopoulos et al. [1998], patients coinfecting with HCV and GB virus C were younger (38.4 years) than patients with HCV alone (42.4 years,  $P = 0.04$ ). On the other hand, Dawson et al. [1996] found an increasing prevalence of GBV-C/HGV RNA with age among west African residents.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to evaluate in HIV-infected individuals the prevalence of GBV-C/HGV genome according to the immune status, reflected by the result of the CD4 cell count. Like the results among the age groups, a significant difference was found by the chi-square test (lower prevalence in patients with a normal CD4 cell count), disappearing in the multivariate analysis. Again, this implies the intervention of confounding factors. However, it might be interesting to complete this study by a follow-up of GBV-C/HGV genome and GBV-C/HGV antibody screening among GBV-C/HGV genome-negative patients.

No correlation was found between GBV-C/HGV prevalence and hepatitis C infection, which is probably due to the high-risk exposure to GBV-C/HGV of all the patients, either parenterally, or sexually, independent of HCV. The rate of GBV-C/HGV coinfection with HCV varies from 8.2% to 44% [Berg et al., 1996; Dawson et al., 1996; Linnen et al., 1996; Tanaka et al., 1996; Alter HJ et al., 1997; Alter MJ et al., 1997; Bhardwaj et al., 1997; Feucht et al., 1997b; Wang and Jin, 1997; Yashina et al., 1997; Manolakopoulos et al., 1998].

The most important prognostic factor of GBV-C/HGV RNA positivity (and the only one in the multivariate analysis), was the presence of a chronic hepatitis B (at least HBsAg carrier, compared to patients with anti-HBc but without HBsAg, individuals without any contact with HBV, and patients with anti-HBs alone [presumably after vaccination]). For GBV-C/HGV-HBV coinfection, discordant results were found in the literature; GBV-C/HGV RNA prevalence in hepatitis B chronic infection may be low: 0/48 for Wang and Jin [1997] and 7/220 (3.2%) for Kao et al. [1997], or high in other studies: 7/72 (9.7%) for Linnen et al. [1996], 32/100 (32%) for Alter MJ et al. [1997]. These last results

strongly suggest that HBV and GBV-C/HGV share common routes of transmission. The low coinfection prevalence in the study of Kao et al. [1997] was explained by a specific epidemiological situation in Taiwan: HBV infection is usually contracted during perinatal periods, or early childhood, and GBV-C/HGV superinfection may occur later. They also found that GBV-C/HGV prevalence increased with the severity of liver disease due to HBV (1% in asymptomatic HBsAg carriers and 10% in hepatocellular carcinoma).

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